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> N° A.F.O.S.R. 84-0397 Final Report December 1985

THE DEPENDANCE OF DAMAGE ACCUMULATION IN CARBON FIBRE REINFORCED EPOXY COMPOSITES ON MATRIX PROPERTIES

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amplitude distributions reveal a peak at 25 db at low stresses which is seen to be displaced towards 40 db at higher applied loads. It is concluded that the peak at 40 db is due to fibre failure whereas the lower peak may be due to microcracking of the matrix. The study has revealed that period of overloading are equivalent to accelerated mechanical aging at lower loads.

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Final Report

December 1985

THE DEPENDANCE OF DAMAGE ACCUMULATION IN CARBON
FIBRE REINFORCED EPOXY COMPOSITES ON MATRIX PROPERTIES

A.R. BUNSELL - B. PONSOT

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I. INTRODUCTION

The object of this study was to reveal the importance of the properties of the matrix in determining the rate of damage accumulation in carbon fibrerein forced epoxy resin. The specimens tested were in the form of flat plates which were subjected to mechanical loading. It is thought that a better understanding of the processes involved in damage accumulation will improve predictions of long term behaviour of composite structures.

In the case of unidirectional carbon-epoxy loaded parallel to the fibres it is known that the overall behaviour is elastic [1]. At the microscopic level however it has been shown that this is not the case and fibre failure under steady loads can be detected by the acoustic emission technique [2].

The role of the matrix in a composite is to ensure the structural integrity of the material. Reinforcement is assured by the fibres which can continue to contribute to the load bearing capacity of the composite, even if broken, due to load transfer by shearing of the matrix around the break which in this way is isolated. The length over which the matrix is sheared around a fibre break depends on the rigidity of the matrix and time dependent effects can be proposed if the matrix is viscoelastic.

In order to study the effects of matrix properties plate specimens were made with three types of resins having very different mechanical properties. These specimens were tested under various loading conditions and the internal damage which accumulated was monitored by acoustic emission and compared to a previously developed failure model [3].

II. FAILURE MODEL

No classical model based on fracture mechanics is able to predict failure in unidirectional carbon fibre epoxy specimens loaded parallel to the fibres. This is equally true for many filament wound structures in which the fibres are positioned to carry most of the applied stresses. Fracture mechanics assures that the material behaves as a continium and fails by the propagation of two fracture surfaces. The composites considered in this study fails by the accumulation of internal damage which, in the absence of stress raisers, occurs throughout the body of the structure. Carbon fibre epoxy resin is usually considered as being perfectly elastic when loaded in the direction of the fibres however delayed failure of even unidirectional cfrp has been reported indicating non elastic behaviour and the time dependent accumulation of damage [4,5]. The viscoelastic properties of the matrix must be considered as being at the origin of this time dependent behaviour as it is known that carbon fibres are purely elastic at room temperature.

Rosen's model of failure of a unidirectional composite material is based on the weakest link idea and the failure scenario described below is based on a similar approach but taking into account the viscoelastic nature of the matrix [6]. The failure of a fibre in a bundle of fibres subjected to a steady load increases the load on all the other remaining intact fibres in the bundle. In the absence of a matrix the over load experienced by the intact fibre occurs at every point over their whole length. Subsequent failure of fibres will as a consequence be unrelated to the point of failure of the broken fibre and only due to the distribution of weakening defects on the fibres. If instead of a fibre bundle a unidirectional composite is considered the effect of the fibre break is restricted to a small section of the composite due to load transfer through the matrix at the broken ends of the fibre. The zone

over which the increase in load is experienced by fibres neighbouring a fibre break depends on the shear properties of the matrix, the quality of the interface and the Young's modulus of the fibre. If the properties of the matrix are time dependent this zone can increase in length along the fibre due to relaxation of the matrix and so its effect on neighbouring fibres will vary. This behaviour has been evoked by Rotem and Lifschitz to explain delayed failure in composites [7].

It has been observed that when unidirectional cfrp specimen is subjected to a constant load in the fibre direction the emission rate decreases with time. It is reasonable to assume that the emissions are directly related to internal damage accumulation and that in this case the principal source of emissions are fibre breaks. Laroche and Bunsell [2], studying a rigid matrix cfrp in which the resin was the CIBA GEIGY 914 C epoxy resin, showed that the rate of emissions obeyed a law of the form:

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = \frac{A}{t + T} \tag{1}$$

where t is time

T a time constant

A a function of the applied stress

Developing this relation we obtain :

$$\log \frac{dt}{dN} = \frac{N}{A} + \log \frac{T}{A}$$
 (2)

so that the gradient of a plot of $\log \frac{dt}{dN}$ against f(N) gives $\frac{1}{A}$.

A more general relationship was later proposed by Valentin and Bunself [3] such that :

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = \frac{A}{(t+\tau)} \tag{3}$$

where n is a dimensionless parameter.

../..

It was observed that for cfrp with a rigid matrix, n = 0,99 and the value of n represented the variation from linearity with the curve being more closely described by

$$\log \frac{dt}{dN} = \log \frac{\tau}{A}^{n} + \frac{n}{1-N} \log[1 + \frac{N(1-n)}{A\tau^{(1-n)}}]$$
 (4)

Equation (4) has been successfully applied to the emission recorded from unidirectional plates subjected to steady loads. Long term tests reveal however that the curve tends to an asymptote. The curve therefore presents two asymptotes, one at the origin with a gradient Cl and at infinity of gradient C2. The asymptote at infinity is of particular importance as it is its stage which describes damage accumulation during long term steady loading and which can indicate time to failure. The acoustic emission behaviour tends to the second asymptote very quickly in the case of rigid matrices, loaded parallel to the fibres as described previously [2, 3]. The use of more flexible resins emphasizes the initial behaviour.

As a first approach it has been assumed that the acoustic emission behaviour results from two distinct mechanisms resulting in different emission rates but governed by the same type of law such that:

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = \frac{A_1}{t + \tau_1} + \frac{A_2}{t + \tau_2}$$
with $A_2 >> A_1$ and $\tau_2 >> \tau_1$

This expression was proposed by Valentin [8] in order to describe the acoustic emission behaviour of crossplied cfrp specimens with $(\pm 45^{\circ})_s$ and $(\pm 30^{\circ})_s$ lay ups. A second approach is to modify the initial expression by adding a term which become negligable as the number of emissions increases.

Thus, the initial expression proposed by Laroche and Bunsell [2]

$$N = A \log \frac{t + \tau}{\tau}$$

becomes:

$$N = a \log \left(\frac{t+c}{b}\right) + g(N) \tag{6}$$

where a, b, c are constants

t the time

g(N) tends to zero as N tends to N_{max}

N = 0 when t = 0

So that :

$$a \log \frac{c}{b} + g(0) = 0$$

and

$$C = b \exp \left(-\frac{g(0)}{a}\right)$$

If we write:

$$a = 1/K1$$
.

$$b = K2$$
.

$$C = K2 exp [-K1 g(0)]$$

we have :

$$N = \frac{1}{K1} \log \left(\frac{t + K2 \exp (-K1.g(0))}{K2} \right) + g(N)$$

Putting:

$$N = 0$$
 and $t = 0$

we obtain :

$$\frac{t + K2. \exp[-K1. g(0)]}{K2} = \exp[K1 (N - g(N))]$$

so that :

$$t = K2 \left[\exp \left[K1 \left(N - g(N) \right) \right] - \exp \left(- K1, g(0) \right) \right]$$
 (7)

and:

$$\frac{dt}{dN}$$
 = K1. K2 (1 - $\frac{dg}{dN}$ (N)) exp [K1 (N - g(N))]

therefore :

$$\log \frac{dt}{dN} = \log (K1 \ K2) + \log (1 - \frac{dg}{dN}(N)) + K1 (N - g(N))$$
 (8)

with $g(N) \longrightarrow 0$

when N — N max

If we put
$$\frac{dg}{dN}(N) \longrightarrow 0$$

when N __ N max

equation (8) gives a straight line for log $\frac{dt}{dN}$ as a function of N when N becomes large.

We have therefore a general expression which includes two constants Kl and K2 and a function of N which has still to be defined. The experimental curve obtained by recording $\log \frac{dt}{dN}$ as a function of N can be described by four constants C1, C2, C3, C4 as shown in Figure 1 where :

C1 is the gradient at the origin
C2 is the gradient at infinity
C3 is the ordinate of the second asymptote at N = 0

Ln dt/dN 4.5 1.5 C2 1.5 C1 materiau C0 σ = 936 Mpa C4 -4.5 N(E. A)

C4 is the ordinate of the curve at N = 0

Figure 1: Experimental curve giving the four constants C1, C2, C3, C4.

It is therefore necessary to calculate the constants Ki as a function of the constants Ci.

The gradient of the curve at the origin Cl is:

$$\frac{d \left(\log \frac{dt}{dN}\right)}{dN} = K1 - K1 \quad \frac{dg}{dN} \left(N\right) + \frac{-\frac{dg^2}{dN^2} \left(N\right)}{1 - \frac{dg}{dN} \left(N\right)} \tag{9}$$

$$C1 = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{d (\log \frac{dt}{dN})}{dN} (N)$$

N -- 0

The gradient at infinity C2:

$$C2 = \lim_{\substack{d \in \mathbb{Z} \\ dN}} \frac{d (\log \frac{dt}{dN})}{dN}$$
 (10)

N — N

If we put
$$\frac{dg^2}{dN^2}$$
 (N) — 0 when N — N we see that C2 = K1

as under these conditions $\frac{dg}{dN}$ (N) tends to 0 The ordinate of the asymptote at N=0 giving C3 is described by an equation of the form :

$$H(N) = \log K1K2 + K1. N$$
putting N = 0 $H(0) = \log K1K2$

so that C3 = log K1K2

(11)

The ordinate for the curve when N = 0 gives C4 so that :

C4 = log K1 K2 + log (1 -
$$\frac{dg}{dN}$$
 (0)) - K1. g(0) (12)

The following conditions are therefore necessary as N tends to N $_{\hbox{\scriptsize max}}$

$$g(N), \frac{dg}{dN}(N), \frac{d^2g}{dN^2}(N) \rightarrow 0$$

Putting g(N) in the form $g(N) = \exp [-K3N + K4]$

with K3 > 0 we see from equation (8) that:

$$\log \frac{dt}{dN} = \log K1 K2 + \log (1 + K3 e^{-K3N+K4}) + K1 (N-e^{-K3N} + K4)$$
 (13)

with the following conditions for the constants:

(a)
$$C1 = K1 (1 + K3 e^{K4}) - \frac{K3^2 e^{K4}}{1+K3 e^{K4}}$$

(b)
$$C2 = K1$$

(c)
$$C3 = log K1 K2$$

(d)
$$C4 = \log K1 K2 + \log (1 + K3 e^{K4}) - K1 e^{K4}$$

Ιf

(e)
$$K5 = 1 + K3 e^{K4}$$
 with $K5 > 1$ as $K3 > 0$.

such that
$$e^{K4} = \frac{K5 - 1}{K3}$$

(a)
$$- K3 = (C1 - C2K5) \frac{K5}{K5 - 1}$$

(d)
$$C3 - C4 + log K5 + \frac{C2 (K5 - 1)^2}{(C1 - C2 K5) K5} = 0$$

C2 > 0

which gives:
$$C1 - C2K5 < 0$$
 ou $K5 > \frac{C1}{C2}$

As the gradient at the origin is always greater than the gradient at infinity we have C1 > C2 which verifies the relation:

$$K5 > \frac{C1}{C2} > 1.$$

We therefore have a non linear relationship for K5 (d) which can be solved by a numerical method so allowing K3 and K4 to be calculated

(a) K3 = (C2K5 - C1)
$$\frac{K5}{(K5 - 1)}$$

(e)
$$K4 = \log \left(\frac{K5 - 1}{K3} \right)$$

It is only necessary to adjust the values of the four constants K1, K2, K3, K4 as a function of the experimental points as explaining in Annex 1. In this way an expression for the diagram of $\log \frac{dt}{dN}$ as a function of f(N) is obtained

$$\log \frac{dt}{dN} = \log K1K2 + \log (1 + K3 e^{-K3N + K4}) + K1 (N-e^{-K3N+K4})$$
 (13)

An example of this calculation is given in Figure 2 and it can be seen how the experimental values fit the calculated curve very closely.

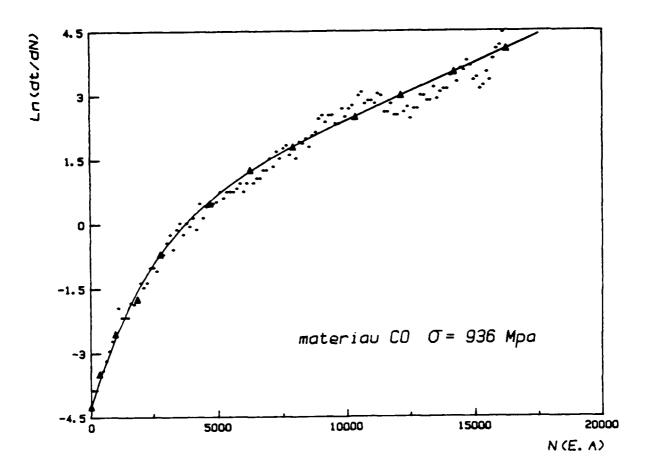


Figure 2: Exemple of a calculated curve fitting experimental values

III. EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

III-1. Matrix systems

In order to test composites reinforced with the same type of carbon fibres (T300) but with matrix materials with very different behaviours it was necessary to make our own specimens from unimpregnated tow and different types of resins. The resin systems were chosen as they gave very different properties, particularly in elongation and creep behaviour but should not be considered as possible systems for composite structures.

Two such systems were made using different ratios of the CIBA GEIGY resins CY 208 a plasticizer and CY 205 as shown in Table (1). The two systems gave resins with very different properties.

	CY 208	CY 205	Fibres
Composite CO	70 %	30 %	Т 300-В
Composite C1	30 %	70 %	T 300-B

Table (1): Formulation of the resin systems studied

III-2. Composite fabrication

Unidirectional plates were made by filament-winding on a machine developed for this study and shown in Figure 3. The fibre tow passed into a heated bath containing the resin system and was impregnated by the resin. After leaving the bath, excess resin was removed from the tow as it passed over a free turning

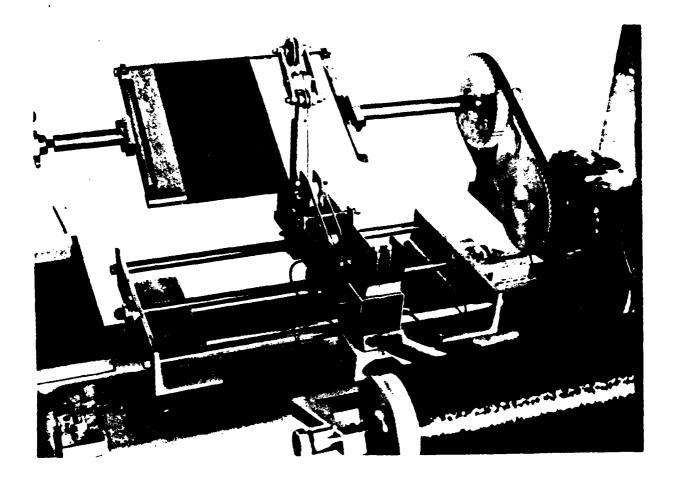


Figure 3: Impregnation and filament winding apparatus

drum. The tow was then wound onto a mandrel in the form of a flat plate. Curing of the system took place after filament winding was complete and involved hot pressing the material using two flat plates which were placed against the mandrel.

III-3 . Specimens

Unidirectional specimens were cut from the plates which had been made as described above. The specimens were 17 mm Wide and 0.7 mm thick. Steel tabs were glued to each end of the specimens to protect them in the grips of the tensile machine. The tabs and specimens were drilled so that the load was transferred via a circular pin. The gauge length of the specimens was 100 mm. The fibre volume fraction was measured to be of around 53 %.

Pure resin specimens were cut from plates made with the proportions shown in table (!). These specimens were 15 mm wide by 4 mm thick with a gauge length of 30 mm. It was necessary to develop a strain measurement technique capable of measuring strain of 60-70 %. The gauges consisted of two induction displacement transducers giving a total displacement of 70 mm. To avoid problems of flexing the average of the two signals was used.

III-4 . Acoustic Emission Monitoring

All tests were monitored with a Dunegan-Endevco 3000 series acoustic emission apparatus. A piezo electric transducer, type D140B was used with a resonance frequency at about 200 KHz. The transducer was fixed to the centre of the specimen and acoustic coupling ensured by silicone grease.

Amplification of the signal was of 95 db (40 db from the preamplifier and 55 db from the main amplifier). The counting system used a threshold level of 25 db, the db measurements were given in reference to a signal of 1 μ V at the transducer. The signal was then analyzed as the number of accumula-

ted pulses, or by the use of an enveloppe generator as the number of events by introducing a dead time period after the recording of each signal. The dead time was chosen to be 100 μ s. In addition a logarithmic time base with a reset to zero after a fixed number of events ΔN was also used. In this way it was possible to plot directly the curve of $\ln dt/dN$ as a function of N.

IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

IV-1 . Pure resin specimens

The aim of these tests was to reveal the differences of behaviour between the two types of resins used. Table (2) gives the properties measured with each type of resin.

Resin	σ _R (MPa)	ε _R (%)	σ _Υ (MPa)	ε _Υ (%)	E (MPa)
R O	40	4	13	0,6	2200
R 1	50	1	25	0,6	4000

Table (2): Properties of the two resin systems employed

Tensile tests were conducted at a strain rate of 8 mm/mn. There was considerable scatter in the results of strength and failure strain, most probably due to internal defects produced during manufacture. It was decided to characterize the material as a function of the pseudo-yield stress Cy beyond which the behaviour was no longer linear, see Figure 4.

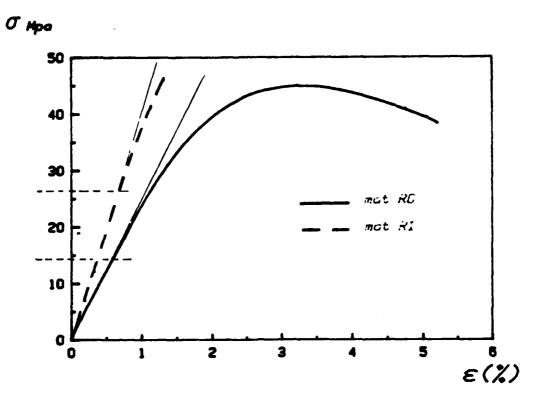


Figure 4: Stress-strain curves of the two resin systems

Creep tests were conducted with reference to the pseudo yield stress and were conducted on a Mayes creep machine.

The RO resin deformed greatly with breaking strains often being of about 60 %. It was assumed as a first approximation that the volume of the specimen remained constant so that:

$$\sigma(t) = \sigma(0) \times [1 + \varepsilon(t)]$$

In order to compare the behaviour of the two materials we could also study the evolution of the modulus E(t) or its compliance

$$D(t) = 1/E(t)$$

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so that
$$E(t) = \frac{\sigma(t)}{\varepsilon(t)} = \frac{\sigma(0) \cdot [1 + \varepsilon(t)]}{\varepsilon(t)}$$

$$D(t) = \frac{\varepsilon(t)}{\sigma(0) \cdot [1 + \varepsilon(t)]}$$

The results of several tests are shown in Figure 5.

Two distinct regions can be seen which show clearly the differences in behaviour between the two resin systems. The composites made with the system RO were therefore expected to reveal a greater effect of the time dependent properties of the matrix than the composites made with the Rl system.

Lifschitz and Rotem [7] have shown that the stress along a broken fibre varies as a function of time such that:

$$\sigma(x,t) = \sigma_0 \cdot [1 - \exp\{-(J(t).A)^{-1/2}.x\}]$$

when J(t) is the shear compliance

t is the time

x is the distance from the point of failure

oo is the stress in the fibre far from the failure

and $A = Ef \cdot rf \cdot (rm - rf)/2$

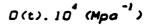
where Ef is the fibre Young's modulus rm is the radius of the cylinder of matrix around the fibre

rf is the radius of the fibre

We have studied the tensile compliance of these materials however it is to be noted that if $D_{Ro}(t) > D_{Rl}(t)$ then $J_{Ro}(t) < J_{Rl}(t)$ so that at the same distance x_l from the failure and after the same interval of time t_l we have :

$$\sigma_{\texttt{C0}}(\texttt{x}_1,\texttt{t}_1) < \sigma_{\texttt{C1}}(\texttt{x}_1,\texttt{t}_1)$$

It is therefore necessary to have a greater load transfer length with the resin system RO and neighbouring fibres are therefore subjected to a higher load over a greater length than with the Rl system.



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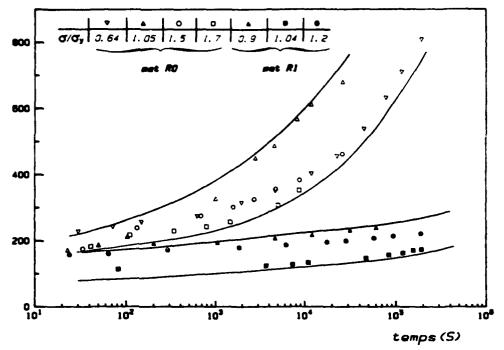


Figure 5: Tensile compliance of the RO and RI resin systems

IV-2 . Composite specimens

- Tensile test :

In order to characterize the materials tensile tests were conducted on the two types of composites CO and Cl. Tests were conducted at a rate of 0,05 cm/mm. Table (3) gives the results

Composite	ō _R (MPa)	Mean deviation (MPa)
CO	1 2 6 0	148
C 1	1143	68

Table (3): Mean results of tensile tests on the two composite systems

The average fibre volume fraction was 53 %. Figure 6 shows the acoustic emission recorded during a tensile test on the CO material.

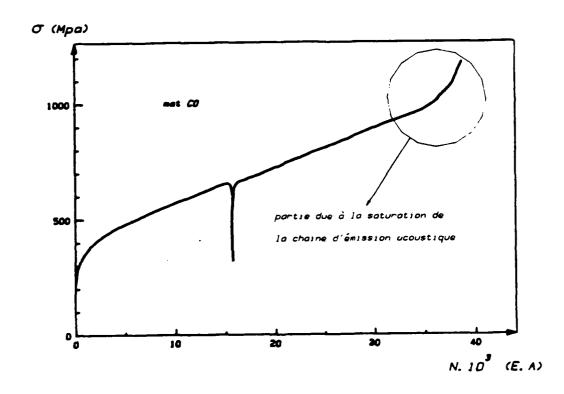


Figure 6: Acoustic emission recorded during a tensile test on the composite ${\tt CO}$

It was found that the Kaiser effect was more closely obeyed at the lower stress levels and that the more rigid composite material Cl showed closer adherence to the Kaiser effect than did the CO material. Both materials began emitting at lower stresses than is reported for the more rigid T300-914 systems previously studied [8].

- Creep tests :

Creep tests at different load levels having stress ratios σ/σ_R from 0,4 to.l were conducted. Below σ = 0,4 σ_R negligeble acoustic activity was recorded within reasonable time periods.

Table (4) gives typical results from a number of studies. The results for each specimen tested show the number of events recorded for each period of steady loading and the length of loading. In addition time necessary for composite CO to accumulate the same number of events as recorded for the composite Cl was calculated from the equation

$$t = K2 [exp(Kl(N - exp(-K3N + K4))) - exp(-Kl expK4)]$$

where: t is in seconds

Ln (dt/dN)

K1, K2, K3, K4 experimentally ajusted constants

N is the number of accumulated events at that load level

In all cases the time necessary to accumulate a given number of emissions was shorter for the CO material than for the Cl material which reveals the greater speed of damage accumulation for the former composite. Figure 7 give examples of the stabilisation of the acoustic emission activity of the CO unidirectional specimens.

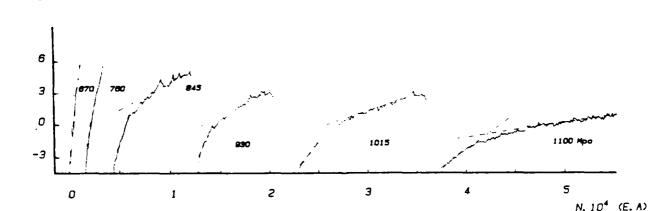


Figure 7: Stabilisation of acoustic emission activity from unidirectional CO specimens

It can be seen that damage accelerated at the higher

o/o _R	N(E.A.	N(E.A.) t(a)	z	ų	z	. به	Z	4	Z	44	z	٠
0,41 - 0,45			2480	3.2 10 ⁵ 8.45 10 ³	1600	1600 3.84 107	1040	2.23 104		•		•
0,46 - 0,50	1600	1.21 10 ⁴ 1.878 10		ı		-		•		•	1760	1.15 10 ⁵
0,51 - 0,55	4000	2.7 10 ⁴ 9.2 10 ³	7200 3120	6.5 10 ⁵ 6.5 20 ⁴	2000	4.41 19 ⁵ 9.1 10					3120	2.89 10
0,56 - 0,60	13360 1360	1.12 105	9200	2.7 10 ⁵ 312	9760 1360	1.15 10 ⁶ 526	1360	3.32 104		ì		1
0,61 - 0,65	24000 2720 2240 4320	9.0 10 ⁴ 739 448 2.54 10 ³	16960 2720 2240 4320	2.6.10 ⁵ 483 275 2.07 10 ³	15695 2720 2240 4320	3.6 10 ⁵ 1.68 10 893 7.92 10 ³	2720	6.18 104	2240	5.06 10	4320	1.99 105
0,66 - 0,70	,		18480 5200 6560		20800 5200 6560	1		ı	5200	3.54 10 ⁵	6560	7.33 104
0,71 - 0,75	20800 2800 12000	4.99 10 ⁴ 150 8.18 10 ³		•	30880 2800 12000	L .	2800	3.87 104		1	12000	2.14 10 ⁵
0,76 - 0,80	'					_	8460	5.46 104	5920	9.33 104		
						١						1

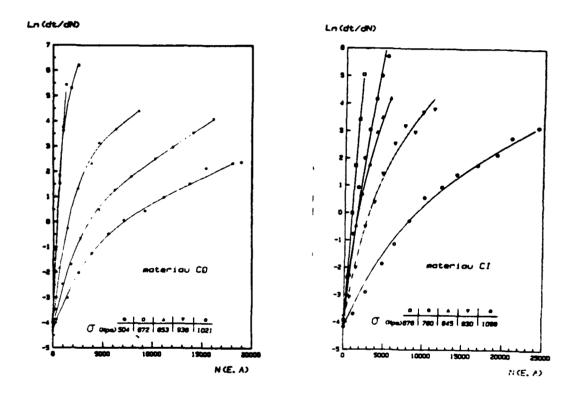
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Table (4) : Results of creep tests on a number of plate specimens

Mat Ø

loads. Figures 8 and 9 show similar curves for both the CO and Cl specimens but all curves are drawn through the origin.

Figure 10 shows the evolution of the two composites at the same stress level. It can be seen that the CO accumulates damage at all stress levels faster than the Cl specimens.



Figures 8 and 9: Stabilisation af acoustic emission for the composite CO and the composite Cl

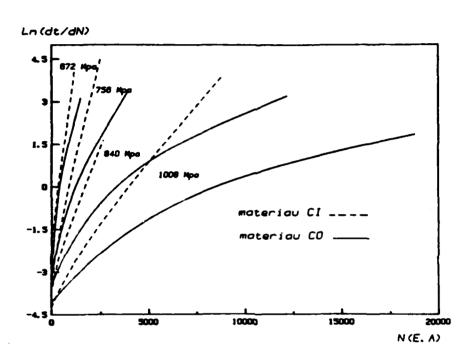


Figure 10: Evolution of the composites CO and Cl at the same stress level

It has not been possible to correlate the variation of the parameters Kl with physical processes. Figure 11 shows the variation of Log Kl as a function of applied stress. The value of Log Kl can be seen to decrease linearly as a function of increasing stress for both types of composite tested. The values of Kl for the CO composites were always superior to those for the Cl composite, again revealing a more rapid accumulation of damage for the CO specimens.

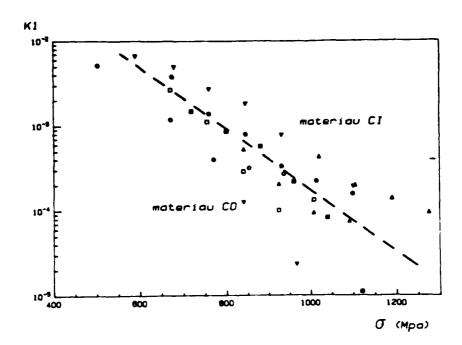


Figure 11: Variation of Kl as a function of applied stress

- Loading sequence effects

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Several specimens were held at different load levels and the loads increased or decreased during certain periods. An increase in load provoked an acceleration of emissions and produced a stabilisation giving a new value of Kl. It is significant to note that returning to the original load level produced acoustic activity which was practically that which would have been obtained by extrapolating the original curve as shown in Figure 12. In this way it can be seen that an increase in load was equivalent to a physical aging process as a much longer period would have been necessary at the lower load to accumulate the emissions recorded at the higher level.

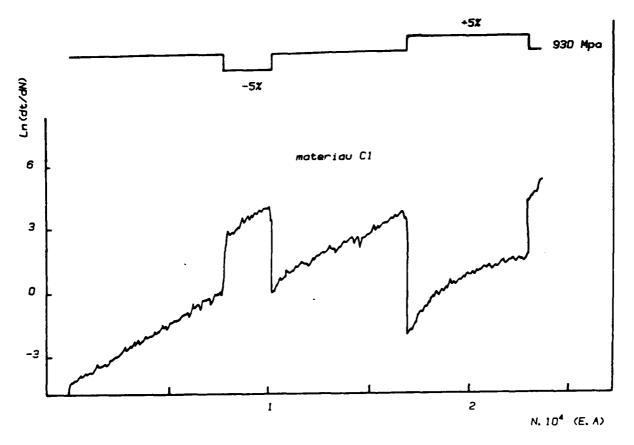


Figure 12: Effect on acoustic emission rate of loading sequences

The acoustic emission rate was reduced by a reduction of load and a return to the original load level again produced the extrapolated behaviour.

- Effect of temperature

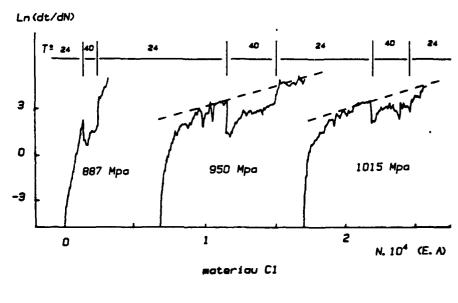
coccesion remarks and

It has been shown that the viscoelastic properties of the matrix have a considerable effect on damage accumulation. The properties of the matrix can be affected by temperature and so studies were conducted on the composites at different temperatures. The temperature was modified during a period of steady loading on the composite Cl. Figure 13 shows the results obtained.

An increase in temperature was found to produce an increase in emission rate. The stabilisation during the period of increased temperature was not regular probably due to the effect of internal stresses and thermal inertia. A return to the initial room temperature produces an extrapolation of the initial part of the curve. The effects of the change of temperature of the environment take sometimes to produce the change in the composite which explains a certain lag in acoustic emission behaviour. In this, an increase in temperature is analogous to the aging produced by an overload as explained earlier.

It proved possible to reproduce the results obtained with composite CO at room temperature by testing the composite Cl at a raised temperature, once again emphasizing the importance of the viscoelastic properties of the matrix.

Tests on the composite CO were also conducted at raised temperatures. The properties of the resin Ro were very temperature dependent and it was expected that as the temperature of the test was increased the load transfer length around fibre breaks would increase markedly. With an extremely soft matrix it could be expected that the behaviour of the fibre bundle would encountered. In this case emissions would cease altogether. This was found not to be the case however it was



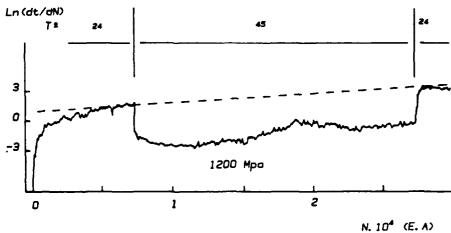


Figure 13: Influence of temperature on the stabilisation of the acoustic emission during steady loading

observed that an increase in temperature of only a few degrees had a considerable effect on acoustic activity. Figure 14 shows that similar behaviour to that seen with composite C1 was obtained but for smaller increases in temperature. This observation has implications interpreting certain results obtained in a laboratory which was not temperature controlled. Figure 15 shows that acoustic activity of a CO specimen showing two peaks at an interval of approximately twenty four hours.

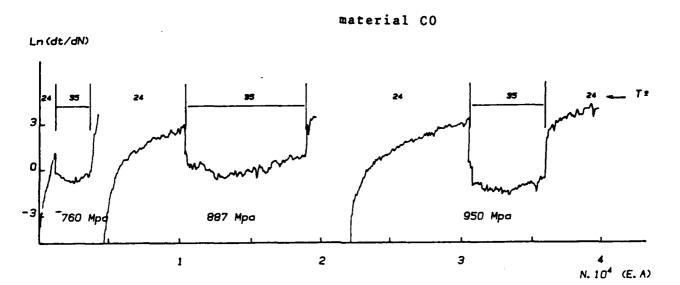


Figure 14: Influence of a temperature change on acoustic emission during steady loading

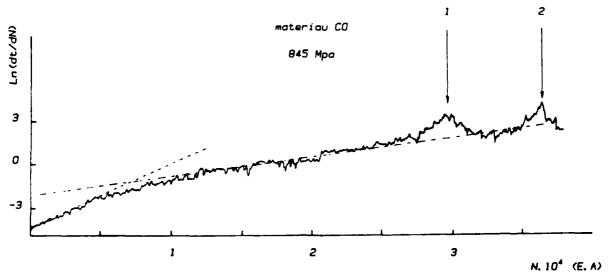


Figure 15: Small changes in temperature in a laboratory between day and night were the most likely cause of the two peaks recorded

IV-3. Statistical Analysis of the Acoustic Emission

The acoustic activity monitored from a material can be characterized by several parameters

- number of emissions
- maximum amplitude
- duration
- energy

The acoustic emission chain used in this study allowed the first three types of analysis to be carried out. The response of the transducer to a pressure wave is schematically a damped sine wave with the form [9,10]

 $V = Vo \exp(-\eta t) \sin \omega t$

where η is the damping factor of the transducer

 $\omega = 2\pi v$

Vo = maximum amplitude

t = time

Certain parameters are interrelated, so that the energy depends on the square of the amplitude and the logarithm of the amplitude can be related to the number of emissions [10]. This being, we selected the signal amplitude as the characteristic parameter. The module used to record signal amplitude was the Dunegan-Endevco 921 module fitted to the 3 000 series apparatus immediately after the preamplifier. A threshold level of 25 db was chosen for all studies. The amplitudes were stored in the 921 amplitude analiser which had 101 memory stores classified from 0 to 100 db. The capacity of these memory stores was 4 096 events. The analog output giving signals from 0 to IO volts allowed the distribution function to be traced directly on a recorder. In order to identify the evolution of amplitude histograms as a function of load, tensile tests on the unidirectional specimens were conducted and the load held steady at different levels. The amplitude histograms were recorded during each period of steady loading.

It was found that for a given hold time the number of

events recorded varied greatly between the first load level and the last. For these reasons, it was necessary to normalize the result at each load level by dividing the number of emissions of each amplitude level by the total number of emissions recorded during the hold period. Figures 16 and 17show the results obtained at three load levels. In both cases it can be observed that the peak observed at 25 db at low stress levels increased to 40 db at higher stresses.

Several hypotheses can be advanced to explain this observation. The peak could be due to one type of mechanism which in the case of fibre failure liberates more energy at higher stress levels than at lower levels [11]. If two mechanisms are involved, one could dominate at higher stress levels. This would be the case if microcracking was at the origin of the 25 db peak and fibre failure the source of the 40 db peak. This second hypothesis although simplist seems the most plausible as the shape of the histogram changes with the increasing load. There is tittle in the literature to which we can turn to help interprete these results although Shippen and Adams [12] attribute high amplitude peaks to fibre failure and low amplitude peaks to microcracking of the matrix. Finally it should not be forgotten that all of the fibres must be broken at least once in order to break the specimen and fibre failure must predominate near the final failure stage.

N/Nt

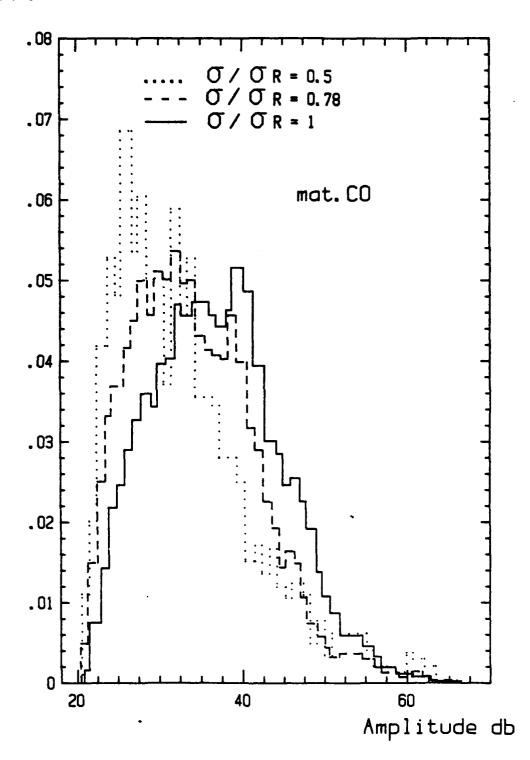


Figure 16: Histograms of the amplitude distribution obtained with the CO specimen

D

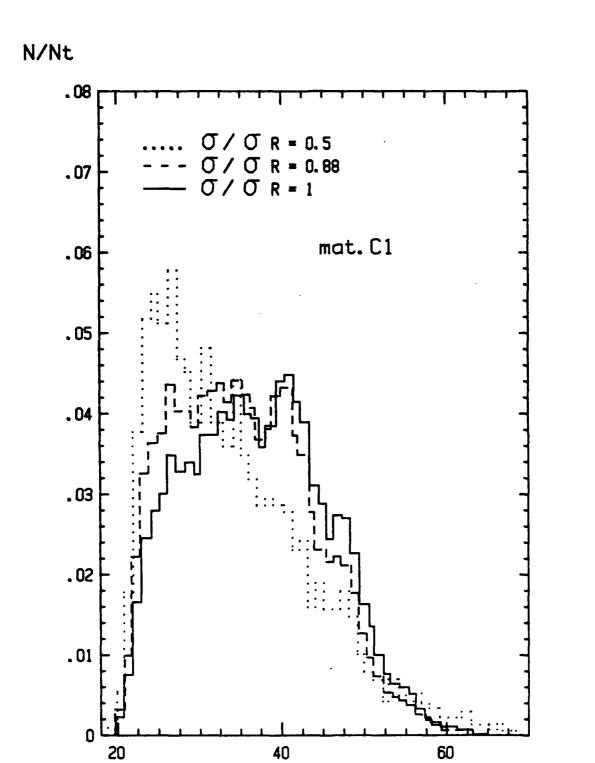


Figure 17: Histograms of the amplitude distribution obtained with the Cl specimen

Amplitude db

V. CONCLUSION

Two types of fibre reinforced resin specimens have been tested, each having the same type of fibre but with very different resin systems. In this way the effect of matrix properties on carbon fibre reinforced resin systems has been studied.

Steady loads on unidirectional specimens have confirmed that far from being the unresponsive purely elastic bodies that most measuring techniques suggest the acoustic emission technique reveals the continuous accumulation of internal damage. The acoustic emission behaviour is characterized by curves of $\ln(dt/dN)$ as a function of total accumulated emissions which typically shows two asymptotic slopes, one at the origin, the other at infinity.

An analytical expression has been proposed to describe this behaviour involving four parameters.

The rate of damage accumulation has been shown to be greatly influenced by the properties of the matrix, with an increased rate observed with a resin containing a high percentage of plasticizer.

The histograms of the amplitude distributions reveal a peak at 25 db at low stresses which is seen to be displaced towards 40 db at higher applied loads. It is concluded that the peak at 40 db is due to fibre failure whereas the lower peak may be due to microcraking of the matrix.

The study has revealed that period of overloading are equivalent to accelerated mechanical aging at lower loads. This is also true of temperature rises during steady loading which induces a more rapid rate of damage. This effect of accelerated aging could be turned to use in determining the long term behaviour of structures under load.

The acoustic emission technique is an indirect method of obtaining information concerning the damage of composite.

The signals arriving at the transducer do so from all over the material and are most probably considerably modified. Despite these difficulties the approach developed in this study offers a quantitative method of analysis of damage accumulation in carbon fibre reinforced resin composites.

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A N N E X

```
\Xi = 1E4:EA = 1E4
  એ = છ
  ] = =
        CHR$ (4)
  8 = 0:DI = 5:Z0 = 0
   PRINT
 DI = 5:VI = 25
    PRINT
    INPUT "C1=":C1: INPUT "C2=":C2: INPUT "C3=":C3: INPUT "C4=":C4
    PRINT Ds:"PR#1": PRINT "VALEURS INITIALES"
    PRINT "C1=";C1;"
                         C2=";C2: PRINT : PRINT "CU=";C3;"
                                                                C4=":C4: PRINT
15
    PRINT D$;"PR#Ø"
15
    DEF FN R(X) = C3 + LDG (X) + ((C2 * X \Rightarrow 2 - 2 * C2 * X + C2) / ( - C2 * X
17
  2 + C1 * X)) - C4
         FN F(X) = LOG (K1 * K2) + LOG (1 + K3 *
    DEF
                                                      EXP ( - K3 * X + K4))
    - EXP ( - K3 * X + K4))
(X
    DIM D(3): PRINT "VOULEZ-VOUS CHANGER LES PARAMETRES DE RECHERCHE (ACTUELS:
    - 5% ET 25 PAS)": INPUT A$
    IF A$ = "N" THEN GOTO 25
21
    PRINT "ENTREZ L'INTERVALLE DE RECHERCHE:": INPUT DI: PRINT "LE NOMBRE DE PAS
:": INPUT VI
    SOTO 500
    SOTO 3700
72 \ 4 = C1 \ / \ C2 + C1 \ / \ C2 * 1E - 3:B = C1 \ / \ C2 + 100
           SGN ( FN R(A))
   A1
    B1 =
          SGN (FN R(B))
     IF A: * B1 = 0 THEN 360
172
     IF A1 * B1 ( Ø THEN 28Ø
192
     FOR I = 1 TO 1000
272
    X = A \div
             9ND(2) * (B - A)
    X1 = S54 (FN R(X))
     IF X1 = 0 THEN 400
     3F At * X1 ( 0 THEN 270
242
     MEXT I
272
    ₽ = X
250
    D(2 + A1) = A
    D(2 - A1) = B
    Y = (D(1) + D(3)) / 2
          SGN ( FN R(Y))
     IF Y1 = 2 THEN 400
    B(2 + Yi) = Y
         ABS (D(1) - D(3)) /
                               ABS (D(1) +
                                             ABS (D(3)) (58 - 8) THEN 422
     90T0 320
IEZ
     IF A: = 0 THEN 390
    Y = 31
        13 400
     90
    ¥ =
        20 = 1 THEN
                      0070 400
        Y = (Y * 5 / 100) : B = Y * (Y * 5)
     6070 150
     IF ZO = 1 THEN GOTO 440
 13
        Y = (Y * 5 / 100) : B = Y
                                      * 5 / 100):Z0 = 1
         (C2 * Y - C1) * (Y /
                                Y = (0).
           ΞXÞ
               (63)) / 62
```

```
RETURN
RETURN
RESULT "VELLEZ-VOLER
        PRINT "ENTRER LES POINTS EXPERIMENTAL.
                                                              AU CLAVUER:18
        PRINT ""
        PRINT "ENTRER LES POINTS EXPERIMENTAUX
                                                              A PARTIR D'UN TABLEAU:2"
         IMPUT EN
552
558
573
573
593
728
728
         IF EN - 1 ) 0 THEN 60TO 1000.
        INPUT "ENTRER LE NOMBRE DE POINTS EXPERIMENTAUX EX=":EX
        DIM L(EX): DIM M(EX)
        FGR I = 1 TO EX
       78 = ^{11}M(^{11} +
                     STR$ (1) + ")=": PRINT Ms
   710
        INPUT M(I)
   720
       [s = "[(" +
                    STR$ (I) + ")=": PRINT LB
   733
        IMPUT L(I)
   748
        NEXT I
e753
758
779
        PRINT ""
        FOR I = 1 TO EX
        PRINT "M(" + STRs (I) + ")=";M(I);" L(" +
770
790
790
800
800
820
  778
                                                         STR$ (I) + ")="$L(I)
        NEXT I
        PRINT ""
        PRINT "VALEURS A MODIFIER? (O/N) ": INPUT VA$
        IF VA$ = "N" THEN GOTO 840
        PRINT "ENTRER LES VALEURS TAPER CONT PUIS RETURN EX:M(3)=2:L(3)=4:CONT"
  836
        STOP : GOTO 760
        PRINT ""
  842
        INPUT "NOM DU TABLEAU (EXP):":T$
  858
        PRINT D$"OPEN";T$
  860
        PRINT DS"WRITE";T$
6870
  883
        PRINT EX
        FOR J = 1 TO EX
  826
  900
        PRINT M(J)
  9:0
        PRINT L(J)
  920
        NEXT J
        PRINT D$"CLOSE":T$
  c 938
        GOTO 1260
   242
   1220
         PRINT "NOM DU TABLEAU ?"
   1212
          INPUT TE
   1 220
         PRINT D$"OPEN":T$
         PRINT DS"READ":TS
   1032
         INPUT EX
   : 240
         DIM M(EX): DIM L(EX)
   1245
          FOR I = 1 TO EX
   1250
   . DEG
          INPUT M(I): INPUT L(I)
   . 373
         NEXT I
   . 322
          PRINT DS"CLOSE":TE
         FOR I = 1 TO EX
    . DE Z
         PRINT "M(" + STR# (1) + ")="##(1);"
    2.7
         MEXT I
          PRINT "VALEURS A MODIFIER ?(D/N)": IMPUT VAS
          IF VAS = "Y" THEN GOTO 1160
          PRINT MENTRER LES VALEURS TORER DENT RUCS PETLECH
          870P : 60T0 1090
          PRINT "VOULEZ-VOUS STOCKER LE TABLEAU ?/O/h//
    173
          INPUT MAS
          .52
220
2:0
          PRINT D#"GPEN" (TS
          PRINT DS"WRITE"; TS
          PRINT EX
          FOR I = 1 TO EX
          PRINT M(I)
```

```
සිට් මේ ය
මෙතුව ට ම ...
       RETURN
M320Z CI = Ci - (Ci * DI / 100):05 = Ci - (Ci * DI / 188)
      IN = (05 - 01) / VI
       GOSUB TA
       30848 2020
       ED = ED
IF EI > E THEN
                        GETO CUBO
       OF O1 ( OS THEN
                        GOTO JOJO
      21 = CM
      01 = 02 - (02 * 01 / 100):05 = 02 + (02 * 01 / 100)
NG122 IN = (CS - CI) / VI
NG132 C7 = C1
 3130 C2 = CI
3135 CN = C2
3140
3150
3150
3150
3170
3180
       GOSUB 70
       GOSUB 2000
       IF EC > E THEN
                        GOTO 3180
 3170 E = EC:CN = C2
 3180 C2 = C2 + IN
       IF C2 ( CS THEN GOTO 3140
5190 IF C2
.3210 CI = C3 - (C3 * DI / 100):CS = C3 + (C3 * DI / 100)
3212
       IF CI ( CS THEN GOTO 3220
 3214 CP = CI:CI = CS:CS = CP
 3220 IN = (CS - CI) / VI
 3230 C3 = CI
3243
       GOSUB 70
\3250
       GOSUB 2000
13262
       IF EC > E THEN GOTO 3280
(3270 E = EC:CO = C3
 5280 \ C3 = C3 + IN
       IF C3 ( CS THEN GOTO 3240
 5232
წვვდდ და = დდ
[33:2 U = 1
 ZZ28
       GOTO 70
$3502 IN = 1E - 2 * C1
≜3502
      IO = IN
       GOSUS 70: GOSUB 2000
      £0 ≈ €0
       PRINT "ED=";E0
 J517
       01 = 01 + IN
       GD5UB 70: GCSUB 2000
       PRINT "ED=";ED: PRINT "D:=";D1
       IF ED > ED THEN
                        GOTO USES
       OP = 01:EP = E0
      01 = 01 - 1X:E2 = E0
       (3550)
(3550)
        IF IN ( 118 - 5 * IN) THEN SOTO DEBS
  ESI
       D1 = 09:52 = EP: 00TO 0523
       G05J8 70: 305J8 1022
       PRINT "CL=":C1: PRINT "EC=":ES
       IF EC > EØ THEN GOTO G610
      01 = 01 - IN:EZ = 50
       90TC 3572
       IN = IN / 18
        if pes iiw >
                        GBS (15 - 4 % ID) THEN
```

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